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REPORT ON THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE WORLD CONFERENCE ON AGRARIAN REFORM AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN THE LUSAKA-BASED MULPOC SUBREGION

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ACRONYMS USED IN THE TEXT

APPER	African Priority Programme for Economic Recovery 1986-1990
CIMMYT	Centro Internacional de Mejoramiento de Maiz Y Trigo (International Maize and Wheat Improvement Centre)
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
IBAR	Inter-African Bureau for Animal Resources
ICIPE	International Centre for Insect Physiology and Ecology
ICRISAT	International Crops Research Institute for the Semi-Arid Tropics
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
ICADD	Inter-Governmental Authority for Drought and Development
ICA	International Co-operative Alliance
IITA	International Institute for Tropical Agriculture
ILCA	International Livestock Centre for Africa
ILO	International Labour Office
ILRAD	International Laboratory for Research on Animal Diseases
LPA	Lagos Plan of Action, 1980-2000
PTA	Preferential Trade Area (PTA) for Eastern and Southern Africa
SADCC	South African Development Co-ordination Conference
UNESCO	United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme
UNFPA	United Nations Fund for Population Activities
UNIDO	United Nations Industrial Development Organization
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
WFP	World Food Programme
WHO	World Health Organization
WCARRD	World Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development

IMPLEMENTATION OF THE PLAN OF ACTION OF THE WORLD CONFERENCE ON AGRARIAN REFORM AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT (WCARRD) IN EASTERN AND SOUTHERN AFRICA

INTRODUCTION

1. The World Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development (WCARRD) was held in Rome from 12-20 July, 1979. The Conference adopted a Declaration of Principles and Programme of Action as well as a Resolution on the follow-up action by the lead agency FAO and other UN organizations. The Declaration of Principles and Programme of Action was endorsed by the ECOSOC and the United Nations General Assembly in the same year. Member Governments declared that the objective of agrarian reform and rural development is the improvement of rural life and activities in all their economic, social, cultural, institutional, environmental and human aspects. National objectives and strategies to achieve this goal, it was declared, should focus on the eradication of poverty, including nutritional and health improvements, and be governed by policies for attaining growth with equity, redistribution of economic and political power, and people's participation in decisions affecting their lives.

2. National governments committed themselves to take actions not only for land distribution, raising rural incomes and employment, food production and nutrition, but also for the provision in rural areas of minimum levels of safe drinking water, family planning, primary health care, housing, education, access to roads, communications, and for increasing the proportion of public expenditure on such utilities and services.

3. The purpose of this report is to examine the past and current patterns of rural development in Eastern and Southern Africa and assess the extent of their contribution towards the fulfilment of the goals and objectives of WCARRD.1/ The focus is on policy and structural reforms which have a bearing on rural development, equity and alleviation of poverty.

4. As WCARRD encompasses complex, broad and interdisciplinary activities it will not be possible to provide a comprehensive assessment. The aim of the exercise is to appraise ECA Member States on actions taken and progress made in rural development; and particularly in the eradication of poverty which is the primary goal of WCARRD, and to provide opportunities for exchanging country experiences on agrarian reform and rural development.

5. The report focusses on progress in the following areas:

(i) Access to land, water and natural resources;

(ii) people's participation;

1/ The report relied heavily on WCARRD mission reports. Comments and suggestions made by the Human Resources, Institutions and Agrarian Reform Division (ESH) of FAO have been very useful in the writing of the report. The Economic and Policy Analysis Division (ESP) has been extremely helpful in providing logistic support and relevant information. Their contribution is gratefully appreciated.

(iii) integration of women in development;

(iv) access to technology, inputs, markets and credit services;

(v) development of non-farm activities;

(vi) health, education and nutrition; and

(vii) agency activities in support of the implementation of the Principles of WCARRD.

6. This report is called for by the Work Programme for the biennium 1986-1987 of the Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) on Food and Agriculture in Africa as approved by the United Nations General Assembly.

REVIEW OF NATURE OF THE PROBLEM

7. During the 1960's and 1970's developing countries as a whole achieved remarkable progress in overall economic development. Growth in Gross Domestic Product (GDP) by the Least Developed Countries exceeded 5 percent per annum, the target set by the United Nations for its First Development Decade. Growth rate in GNP by the Third World countries averaged about 4.6 percent per annum.

8. However, the same cannot be said about Africa. During this period overall growth rates in Sub-Saharan Africa stagnated, and food and agricultural productivity actually deteriorated. As indicated in Table 1, Africa was the only continent which experienced a negative growth rate in per capita agricultural, food and cereal production during the 1970-1976 period.

9. In their attempt to remedy the situation, African countries adopted policy measures, often with expatriate advice and supported and encouraged by donors, which essentially accentuated the pre-independence biases.

10. With the steady increase in human population and livestock numbers the pressure on land increased. Traditional methods of cultivation and resource management failed to cope with the new situation. Land degradation emerged as a critical problem which led to more frequent droughts. With the break-down of the traditional systems, a landless class of farmers appeared; land rents increased and the situation of tenants became insecure. As a result of these unfavourable developments a class of impoverished rural population emerged.. Furthermore, the deterioration in the quality of rural life and the growing disparity between rural and urban incomes led to a mass exodus of the adult male population to the cities and across national borders in search of a better life. The migrants, who were usually less educated and less qualified technically, could not compete for more secure and better paying urban jobs and, as a result, they joined the urban poor and the slum dwellers. Women, who were left behind, had to provide for the family but were ill prepared for their new role.

11. After two decades of experimentation and lost opportunities, the African governments begun to question the wisdom of past development strategies. Growth models uncritically accepted at the time of

independence and afterwards had clearly shown their inappropriateness. Evidently, there has been little progress in economic development and improved standard of living to show for all the efforts and resources (both domestic and external) invested. In actual fact, African countries found themselves worse off than they had been more than twenty years previously, particularly as concerns food and nutrition.

12. The World Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development was a response to these unfavourable developments: the failure of development efforts over two decades of independence to fulfil the needs and aspirations of the African population.

Overview of Structure of Production in Eastern and Southern African countries

13. The Eastern and Southern African subregion 1/ has 27 percent (756.7 million hectares) of the land surface of the African continent; 30.7 percent (137.4 million) of the total population in 1980; and only 15.4 percent of the GNP (1982). GNP per capita averaged US$ 340 (in 1982) compared to a continental average of US$ 677 (FAO, Atlas of African Agriculture, 1986). Thirteen of the eighteen countries experienced decline in per capita GDP ranging from 0.7 to 8 per ent per annum between 1980 and 1983 (seven of them by more than 2 percent).

14. The economies of these countries are primarily agricultural. On average, about 40 percent of their GDPs originate from agriculture (Table 2); with the exception of Zambia and Zimbabwe, between 75 and 99 percent of their export earnings originate from this sector (Table 3). In spite of the considerable efforts of industrialization, not much progress is discernible in this sector. In Botswana, the share of industry increased from 19 to 45 percent (primarily because of the discovery of precious metals) and, in Malawi, from 13 to 18 per cent, while in Zambia the share of industry declined from 40 percent in 1965 to 26 percent in 1984. In all the other countries it remained stagnant. Manufacturing remained small and relatively stagnant in most of the countries. Services make up a significant proportion of the GDP's of many countries, but they too remained stagnant during the period 1965-1984.

15. On the other hand, the subregion has the fastest growing population in Africa. Between 1970 and 1980, eleven countries experienced average annual growth rates exceeding 3 percent and, in four of these countries, it exceeded 4 percent (FAO, Atlas of African Agriculture). These are, there is no doubt, alarming growth rate by any standards. At this rate the population will double in less than 25 years. Although, on average, the man/land ratio is still low, some countries are already experiencing critical arable land problems. Urbanization is also taking place at a high rate (6-7 percent per annum). These growth rates, coupled with the young age of the population in many of the countries, have important implications on the provision of employment and social amenities.

1/ Angola, Botswana, Comoros, Djibouti, Ethiopia, Kenya, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Seychelles, Somalia, Swaziland, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe.

Rational for a focus on rural development

16. Inadequate income, malnutrition, poor health, low literacy rate, high infant and child mortality are some of the important dimensions of rural poverty. Although data on incidence and nature of poverty is limited one thing is clear, that poverty is endemic and critical in rural areas of Africa.

17. That rural development should take precedence over other development endeavours is a pre-ordained fact. Eighty to ninety percent of the population of Eastern and Southern Africa lives in the rural areas, struggling for bare subsistence; hunger, malnutrition, disease, ignorance, and social and economic injustice prevail here. However, moral justification alone is not the reason for emphasis in this area, the economic justifications and the political imperatives are even more compelling and convincing. Rural development may bring the following economic benefits:

(i) Creation of employment for the rapidly increasing popoulation: Industrial growth is slow and in fact stagnant. The growing young labour force must find employment and sustenance in agriculture, particularly the labour intensive small-scale farming sector. In this area the development of small-scale labour intensive farming in countries like Kenya and Malawi can provide a lesson.

(ii) Reduction of food imports: Reducing food imports would release scarce foreign exchange for the importation of industrial inputs and machinery essential for growth and development.

(iii) Expansion of domestic market: In Africa, urbanization is still very low. Expansion of purchasing power of the rural mass is therefore the only way to achieve this objective.

(iv) Expansion and diversification of export opportunities: The development and expansion of intensive small-scale farming provides good opportunity for diversifying exports.

(v) Discouragement of rural-urban drift: Improvement of rural life is one of the sure means of reducing this high influx of people.

18. Obviously, the most important resources the poor countries have, are their people and their land. The rational utilization and mobilization of these vast resources is a pre-condition for the development of sustained and self-reliant economies. In rural development, the cardinal objective is the mobilization of rural-based resources and the development of self-reliant communities.

19. Another important aspect of rural development is the expansion of rural industries. Among other things, this will increase the supply of goods and services to farmers at costs much lower than urban based industries can produce them. Such developments are essential for the creation of a dynamic rural society. In addition, rural based industries have several advantages. They are: labour intensive (low capital/labour ratio) conditions; family and community savings which could be mobilized; the creative potentials and entrepreneurial capacities existing in rural areas which could be exploited.

WCARRD OBJECTIVES AND TARGETS

20. WCARRD called for stepped up reforms of institutions and rural development policies and urged governments to undertake the following reforms:

(i) promote rural institutions and people's organizations;

(ii) undertake structural reforms; and

(iii) increase the commitment of resources to the agricultural sector.

21. This section looks at some of the reforms and achievements in the target areas of WCARRD. In assessing achievements one has to appreciate the daunting social, economic and political problems these countries have been burdened with (persistent drought, recession in developed countries, rising debt service, decreasing foreign exchange earnings and escalating prices of industrial inputs etc). These setbacks have forced the countries to rearrange priorities and shift manpower and resources away from long-term developments towards overcoming the emergency. These problems overstrained the fragile and weak economies. Now the emergency has subsided, the preoccupation has been towards the rehabilitation of the devastated economies.

22. While this may have slowed down reforms, the crisis has, on the other hand, demonstrated the plight of the rural poor and the special problems and vulnerability of small-scale farmers, women and children in a dramatic way, and has reinforced the call to reduce the vulnerability of these groups to such setbacks.

Political Will to Further the Aims of WCARRD

23. There is at present, more than ever, a heightened awareness, at the highest level of African leadership, of the critical economic situation facing Africa and the primacy of agriculture.

24. This concern has been demonstrated in the adoption of the Lagos Plan of Action in 1980 for the Economic Development of Africa, 1980-2000 and recently the African Priority Programme for Economic Recovery (APPER) 1986-1990 by the Twenty First Ordinary Summit of the OAU. The aims and objectives of both these documents are harmonious with those of WCARRD. By

adopting the above documents, the African leaders have committed their respective governments to taking appropriate measures, individually and collectively, to transform their economies and to enhance agricultural productivity. This conviction is embedded in the following paragraph of the APPER:

> "... the development of our continent is the primary responsibility of our Governments and peoples. We are, therefore, determined to take concrete actions and measures individually and collectively for the achievements of the economic development of our continent in unity and solidarity of African people's and member states".

25. At the subregional level, the creation of SADCC, PTA and IGADD for the promotion of cooperation in agriculture and allied areas is a further testimony of the seriousness of this commitment.

National Development Plans

26. Although the gulf between plans and plan fulfillment is well known, plans, nevertheless, provide important information on government priorities in the pursuit of economic development and the means by which the objectives are to be attained. A number of National Plans were examined to see if they reflect the spirit of WCARRD. The latest plans do, indeed, give high priority to agriculture and the attainment of food self-sufficiency in contrast to earlier plans which were urban biased with focus on infrastructural development. The reduction of rural-urban income disparities are integral components of most plans. Furthermore, most plans recognize the importance of participatory democracy.

27. For example, the Fourth National Development Plan of the Government of Kenya (1979-83) had poverty alleviation as its main theme. Poverty was to be attacked in four major fronts, viz:

(i) the creation of income-earning opportunities;

(ii) the redirection of expenditures in favour of the poor;

(iii) the provision of other basic needs such as nutrition, health care, basic education, water and housing; and

(iv) institutional building and reforms.

28. However, a review of some national plans indicated that the countries are yet to develop and elaborate coherent and comprehensive rural development strategies envisaged in WCARRD. Nonetheless, the plans have the essential elements of rural development such as priority to agriculture, reducing rural-urban income gaps, food self-sufficiency, self-reliance, health and education facilities.

29. After examining the country submissions on rural development plans and strategies, an FAO sponsored International Workshop on Designing Rural Development Strategies (1985) made the following observations:

> "...there was very little relationship between policies, programmes and projects in horizontal terms (sectors) and in vertical terms (local, regional and national levels). Where there was a horizontal inter-relationship as seen in some integrated rural development projects, such was very limited, as these projects were often islands unto themselves, bearing little relationship to other rural and non-rural projects under the national development plan. In these cases, the integrated rural development projects were enclaves very similar to the export-oriented primary producing activities, with little significant forward and backward linkages".1/

30. However, on the whole, MCARRD mission reports indicate the following shortcomings in national plans: (i) lack of specified targets; (ii) lack of strategy as to how targets will be achieved; and (iii) lack of process through which progress can be assessed.

Progress in key areas of MCARRD

31. Access to land and water and natural resources: Agrarian reform is a fundamental question that many governments had to consider before they could embark on long-term rural development activity. In rural Africa, land is not only the most important factor of production, but for millions living in rural areas it is the basis of their livelihood and survival. For the privileged few, it means power, prestige and wealth and is an instrument for exploiting others. Without land reform it is hardly possible to achieve any meaningful rural development and transformation.

32. Land reform can take various forms depending on the objective conditions existing in each country: it could be nationalization of land with or without compensation and distribution to those who cultivate it, improvement of landlord tenant relationships, improvement of tenure conditions, consolidation of fragmented holdings, changes in inheritance laws or transfer through sales, collectivization, settlement, conservation etc.

33. However, to produce the desired benefit land reform has to be combined with other policy reforms which facilitate the provision of inputs, marketing of output at remunerative prices, provision of consumer goods etc. Otherwise, land reform could result in reduced output and standards of living, as amply demonstrated in a number of countries which had adopted fundamental land reform measures.

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1. FAO, Report on the International Workshop on Designing Rural Development Strategies, 2-7 December, 1985, Ibadan, Nigeria, P.12.

34. In traditional communities, customary arrangements operated adequately to ensure access to land, water and other natural resources and maintain harmonious relationship between exploitation and conservation of land and water resources. But with increasing pressure from human population and livestock and commercialization, the traditional systems were unable to meet the growing problems.

35. In a number of countries in the subregion traditional systems still prevail. In such situations land is controlled by customary laws and access is gained on the basis of customary laws. The issue of landlessness rarely arose for men. But for women the same customary laws that gave men access to land, deny them this opportunity. Women get access to land and water and other natural resources only through their husbands. Traditional systems also pose some critical problems to development which are rarely recognized.

36. With respect to development problems associated with customary land tenure and traditional administration, the Lesotho WCARRD Follow-up Mission Report is very instructive. The Lesotho case is discussed here not because it is unique, but to illustrate common problems of the system. The problems indicated were: 1/

(i) land is administered according to traditional needs and not according to development priorities, resulting in excessive fragmentation, overstocking and overgrazing, with resultant land degradation;

(ii) constraints to overall physical planning, management and use of land according to essential economic and social criteria, for shared but scarce resources;

(iii) the breakdown of the village chief's control over communal grazing has created further problems for land management and land use planning;

(iv) the village chief's rights and control have impeded the emergence of community control and development of this shared asset, through people's participation and appropriate local institutions; and

(v) since use rights revert to the community after harvesting, the incentive to manage and develop the land is adversely affected.

37. In many nomadic societies, the common ownership of land, combined with the private ownership of livestock grazing on it has brought about the phenomenon known as the "dilemma" of the pastoralists. Here there is a conflict between the individual interest to field more animals and the social interest to avoid degradation of pasture land by limiting the number of animals to the land's grazing capacity. Thus, land reform in pastoralist communities is becoming a vexed question.

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1. FAO, Kingdom of Lesotho: The WCARRD Follow-up Inter-Agency Mission, 1982, P.7.

38. In recent years, a number of countries in the subregion have adopted reforms of one kind or another. An FAO-sponsored Government Consultation on the Follow-up of WCARRD, held in Harare, Zimbabwe, (1985, has reported on initiatives taken by certain countries in land legislative acts and regulations, with the objective of giving small farmers access to land and/or of avoiding fragmentation of available farm lands. In some cases, countries had all agricultural land vested in the State, while allowing the farmers to use this land according to customary rules and regulations. The report also indicated that some countries felt that land distribution was not of immediate need, while others had applied measures of land reform in a gradual manner.

39. Two countries which introduced fundamental reforms in land-human relationships are Tanzania and Ethiopia. In Tanzania, the Arusha Declaration on socialism made land public property to be administered by the Ujamaa villages while, in Ethiopia, the Rural Land Proclamation of March 1975 nationalized all rural land and introduced a system of use rights which set a ceiling of 10 hectares per household and abolished tenancy. Administration of land was left to Peasant Associations established by the same Proclamation.

40. Tanzania is well known for its egalitarian political philosophy and innovative rural development programmes. Since the Arusha Declaration, it has moved first to establish the Ujamaa villages and then to implement the villagization programme which involved the settlement and resettlement of the scattered population into demarcated villages known as development villages. It also set up village government institutions through which people can participate in their own development.

41. The Tanzanian experiment, keenly followed by many, brought various benefits in terms of social and infrastructural services but, according to many observers, failed to bring about the desired overall economic development and standard of living for the rural population. The WCARRD mission indicated that communal farming, which is the cornerstone of the socialization, has shown very little progress so far, accounting for only 1 percent of the total cultivated area. Agricultural production has declined over the years, in spite of the huge investment made in agriculture and related activities.

42. The thrust of Tanzanian rural development policy is:

(i) primacy of agriculture;

(ii) local management and self-reliance; and

(iii) socialist mode of production based on Ujamaa villages.

43. However, in spite of the slow progress so far achieved in terms of overall economic development and improved standards of living for the people, the foundation has been laid for a great leap forward in future. In fact, the WCARRD mission feels that Tanzania is already beginning to feel the "positive effects" of its past reforms and investments.

44. The objectives of the Ethiopian Government are:

(i) accelerated growth with equity and the elimination of inherited inequalities and exploitation of man by man;

(ii) eradication of poverty, hunger, disease and illiteracy;

(iii) the building of a strong and self-reliant economy.

45. Rural transformation is the cornerstone of its development activities. To carry out the implementation of reform, various community (people's organizations) and public institutions have been created. Socialization of agriculture is the primary vehicle of rural development. To this effect the Government has, since 1985, been actively encouraging and supporting a programme of settlement and villagization. In addition to the obvious advantage in terms of the provision of services, villagization is expected to facilitate rationalization of land use, enhancement of soil and water conservation activities and promote socialization of agriculture.

46. In Ethiopia, a radical change has taken place in land-human relationships, but complementary policy changes have not been introduced to enhance agricultural productivity. For instance, the supply of improved inputs and credit, particularly to small farmers, seem to be slackening; agricultural research has not so far produced suitable packages, particularly for small farmers; and the price structure leaves a lot to be desired. There is thus no doubt that these policy shortcomings have undermined the egalitarian land reform and have contributed to the slow progress in agricultural productivity.

47. In Zimbabwe, emphasis has so far been on cooperativization, particularly in the resettlement farms, and on the provision of credit. Reports indicate that favourable policies in the area of pricing and input supply have greatly encouraged the production of surplus food from the small farm sector in recent years.

48. The Lesotho government introduced a Land Act in 1979 designed to redress inequalities and remove obstacles to the development of agriculture.1/ According to the Land Act, allocation is to be made by a Lands Allocation Committee chaired by the chiefs. The Act also encouraged development of land through a system of leasing provisions. But the mission felt that land allocation still leaves room for bias towards the more powerful in the rural areas, and that the provision of leasing arrangements work out to the disadvantage of the rural poor who may be bought out of their meagre holdings by the more powerful and resourceful farmers.

49. People's Participation: The lack of grass root participation in the development, implementation and evaluation of development projects is considered to be one of the important reasons for the poor performance of past development efforts. As a result, the need for people's participation in social, economic and political decisions that affect their lives is receiving increasing support and attention. Governments are developing the necessary institutional framework to make this a reality.

1/ Ibid, pp. 8-9

50. Since it is the farmers themselves who make the final decision on whether to institute a change in their farming practices or not, the logic of involving them in the formulation of the plan and its implementation is inescapable. But people's participation is a complex and intriguing issue. It requires resource and organizational capacity to make it work. Farmers, both men and women, need to be organized into viable groups. They have to be educated and assisted in their new role; and development agents too have to be educated to accept the new relationship.

51. All the countries visited by the WCARRD Follow-up Mission have indicated their readiness to institute policies and practices to enhance people's organizations through which genuine participation could take place. Already, in many countries, government and administrative decision making and planning machineries are being decentralized and people's organizations such as cooperatives, credit unions, women's and youth organizations, etc, are being encouraged and actively supported. The "bottom-up" approach to planning is getting support.

52. Planning from "below" is essentially a process which will help to better identify and understand the following components of a plan:

(i) identification of available resources at the local level;

(ii) identification of available manpower and skill;

(iii) identification of socio-economic and technical constraints;

(iv) more precise determination of the needs and priorities of particular target groups;

(v) identification of risks farmers face and how they confront them;

(vi) identification of production opportunities and alternatives which exist at the village level; and

(vii) consideration of past village experiences in productive activities.

53. This approach to planning involves a close partnership between the planner and the intended beneficiaries. Their roles are complementary. Planners know things which farmers do not know, while farmers have essential and key information which planners do not possess but which is nec essary for good planning. For this relationship to operate harmoniously, however, a change of attitude is required of both partners.

54. The missions observed that many governments have established some machinery to decentralize decision making and enhance people's participation. To mention just a few: in Somalia, regional councils, district councils and village committees are in a position to ensure people's participation in self-help development activities; in Zambia, the Government has planned to establish village development centres; in Ethiopia, attempts are being made to decentralize decisions to the Peasant Association level.

55. Tanzania has set up one of the most extensive systems in Africa to enhance people's participation and promote grassroot democracy. Regional government authorities are given the responsibility for local planning and implementation. Plans are discussed and worked out at the village level, and submitted to the District Development Committee (DDC). The DDC makes an appraisal and sends the proposal to the District Executive Committee of the Party for final approval, before it is submitted to the Region.

56. In many countries, the rudimentary elements are being put in place to further the objective of people's participation. But so far, even in Tanzania where the system seems to be advanced, observers indicate that al decisions are made at the top and handed down. 1/

57. Access to Inputs, Markets and Credit Services: The aim of agrarian reform is to bring about rural transformation by creating a dynamic rural society. One component of this transformation is land reform which, to be effective, must be combined with institutional and policy reforms to facilitate the flow of productive resources into the rural economy. Thus easy access to improved inputs, markets, credit and other services become an essential components of rural transformation. To increase agricultura productivity, inputs must be available at the right time, place and price. Research has demonstrated that use of improved inputs (seed, fertilizer, irrigation, implements etc.) and practices (rate of seeding, planting dates, weeding etc.) can increase yield considerably. The "Green Revolution" in Asia and Latin America was facilitated by the presence of such services. Africa failed to experience anything like the "Green Revolution" partly because these pre-requisites were not there.

58. In most of the countries of the subregion there is a marked dualism between commercial farms which use high level technology and small-scale farmers who use very few improved techniques or none at all. Table 4 shows the use of fertilizers in Eastern and southern African countries. As shown in the table, the quantity of fertilizer applied on non-food and export crops is by far higher than on food crops. For instance, in Ethiopia only 3 kg/ha of fertilizer nutrients is used on food crops compared to 28 kg/ha on export and non-food crops; in Tanzania, the figures were 2 kg/ha and 31 kg/ha respectively. In Zimbabwe, export and non-food crops used 267 kg/ha while only 37 kg/ha have been applied on food crops. In Kenya, 20 kg/ha were used on food crops compared to 34 kg/ha on non-food crops.

59. The use of improved inputs is constrained by various factors,including weak delivery systems, unavailability of credit, lack of recommended packages suitable for small-scale farmers (a weakness of the research services) and lack of incentives for farmers to use improved practices.

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1. FAO, Review of Rural Development Strategy and Policies, United Republic of Tanzania: Report of the High Level WCARRD Follow-up Mission, 1981, pp. 32-33.

60. Agricultural Research: During the colonial period, research activities were organized mainly on the basis of major export commodities (cotton, ground nuts, cocoa, tea, coffee etc.) covering large geographic areas. After independence, the existing infrastructures were neglected and each independent State tried to organize its own research facilities. Experience since then has shown that a critical mass of scientific staff and resources are necessary to build an effective agricultural research infrastructure. Therefore, agricultural research has lapsed in many countries. Transfer of technology from other regions did not prove feasible. National agricultural research activities focussed on variety trials, fertilizer trials, and cultural practices such as time of planting, plant density, and the like. In general, research ignored food crops and continued to concentrate on export crops. Farm-tested recommendation are rarely available, and research recommendations are often too global to be of any benefit to specific geographic locations with specific micro-climatic conditions and soil variation. Socio-economic research is generally weak.

61. In his Transforming African Agriculture, 1986 Carl Eicher provides a very critical review of agricultural research in Africa. He maintains that African Agricultural Research has not given sufficient attention to basic research in the long-term interest of agricultural development. Historically, universities and other educational institutions contributed a great deal to long-term research and the expansion of the frontiers of knowledge. Unfortunately, in Africa, university research generally lack focus. Research continuity, which is important in basic research, is generally lacking. Admittedly, funding is also sporadic and inconsistent.

62. A number of International Agricultural Research Centres (IITA, CIMMYT, ICRISAT, ICIPE, ILRAD, ILCA, IBAR) are at present working in Eastern and Southern Africa on both long and short-term agricultural problems. Their research efforts have produced significant advances. But the impact at national levels have so far been minimal.

63. Recently the governments of the subregion established their own regional organizations (SADCC, PTA, IGADD). ECA and FAO are collaborating in assisting the Member States establish a subregional maize research network.

64. National agricultural research institutions are making concerted efforts to re-orient research towards food crops. For instance, in this subregion, maize, sorghum and millet and beans are receiving considerable support. But more research is needed on roots and tubers which are important food items, on pulses, disease resistance, pest resistance, drought tolerance, crop association (mixed cropping) and on socio-economics.

65. A World Bank report,1/ indicates that Africa is outspending both Asia and Latin America on research as a proportion of GDP and in expenditure per scientist (Table 5). The Bank report maintains, , however, "that most of the cost of research has been financed by donors and as a result they shape research policies, institutions, and practices, often without adequate national involvement".

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1. World Bank, Financing Adjustment with Growth in Sub-Saharan Africa, 1986-90, Washington, D.C., p.33.

66. The development of appropriate technology is vital in the development of agriculture. No country has developed its agriculture without strong agricultural research systems and associated services such as extension, credit, marketing etc. However, in many developing countries technology development and transfer, to small farmers in particular, is weak and inefficient. Technologies adaptable to local ecological conditions and socio-economic and production patterns are not available.

67. The link between agricultural research and extension has been found to be very much wanting in many countries. This has made it difficult to develop technology that is relevant to small farmers (men and women). Feedback on farmer responses has been difficult to get while, on the other hand, extension agents are unable to get access to relevant and valid technological packages. This calls for more intensive dialogue involving researchers, extension personnel, farmers and other rural development institutions (both men and women). Recent years have evidenced determined moves to improve approaches to extension services. More emphasis is being given to group contact and participatory approach. But progress is hampered by the inadequate, ill trained, and unmotivated extension agents, and shortage of finance and facilities.

68. Agricultural credit: There is evidence that, due to lack of security and frequent inability to repay loans, the volume of loans advanced to small farmers have been very limited. Furthermore, loans advanced constitute mainly, if not exclusively, short-term loans, limiting the opportunity for small-farmers to invest in long-term improvements.

69. In Tanzania, for example, the mission observed that in 1976-77 about 68.4 per cent of the loans were made for seasonal inputs and, of the 8,000 villages, only 1,080 villages were covered.

70. In Ethiopia, under the minimum package programme - Phase II (1977/78 -1980/81) - an average of 15.9 million BIRR (US$ 7.8 million) was advanced to small farms (average about US$1.3/household). The repayment rate averaged about 75 percent 1/. The available statistics also indicate that 80-90 percent of the loan advanced by the AIDBANK goes to State farms and the rest to cooperatives mainly on short-term loans (seasonal). State farms and cooperatives produce only some 10 percent of the agricultural output.

71. An important factor prohibiting access to credit by small farmers is the need for security. Lending institutions consider small farmers particularly risky. The risk factor is aggravated by lack of location specific input packages and the frequent occurence of drought. The WCARRD mission to Somalia recommended the introduction of crop insurance (possibly on a trial basis) to guarantee reasonable income to small farmers in the event of crop failure.

72. With respect to problems associated with credit, the various missions observed that credit institutions are badly organized and fragmented, and duplicate each other's activities. The rationalization and streamlining of credit organizations has been recommended.

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1. Teka, T. and T. Nichola, Rural Forestry Alleviation: The Case of Ethiopia, FAO, Rome, 1984, p.71.

73. Agricultural Marketing: Available evidence shows a general trend to improve agricultural incentives by raising agricultural prices and enhancing the efficiency of the agricultural marketing systems. At present many governments control agricultural prices through the various parastatal and marketing boards. Some parastatals are given monopoly purchasing power for specific commodities.

74. For instance, in Somalia it was revealed that:

> "failure to monitor and adjust systematically these prices with rising costs to retain an incentive element and ensure appropriate price differential between crops has led to a sizeable parallel market in the food trade and a consistent decline in Agricultural Distribution Corporation (ADC) intake limits." 1/

The same is true of other countries where price control has been introduced without adequate mechanisms for monitoring supply and demand movements and for making necessary adjustments.

75. With respect to export commodities, the monopoly purchase by parastatal organizations and marketing boards coupled with government fiscal policy operate against the interests of farmers. In many cases farmers are paid a very small proportion of the export prices (f.o.b.). For instance, tobacco farmers in Malawi and Tanzania were paid less than 50 percent of the border price during the late 1970's and early 1980's (World Bank, p. 65). In Ethiopia, coffee farmers received only 29 percent of the border price.

76. In spite of the foregoing problems, a clear and general trend towards improving incentives for food crop producers has been evident. According to the World Bank report, this has come about through increasing official prices in conjunction with devaluation, as in Zambia, or deregulating markets to give farmers access to higher prices on the parallel market, or introducing more flexible systems of official markets as in Tanzania, where the price of maize has been doubled between 1979 and 1985. There are also moves by some countries to allow more room for the free market.

77. A critical issue with respect to marketing is the role of parastatal organizations. Experience in a number of countries indicate that parastatals suffer from poor management and inadequate financing. To cover their costs, parastatals often inflate their marketing margins at the expense of farmers, or they are subsidized by the Central Treasury putting heavy burden on the State. Some parastatals are also known to have increased their profits by keeping farm gate prices low.

78. Integration of Women in Development: WCARRD considers the recognition of the vital role of women in the socio-economic life of a country to be a prerequisite for successful rural development, and calls on Governments to consider action to ensure: (i) equality of legal status; (ii) women's access to rural services; (iii) women's organizations and their participation in development projects; (iv) education and employment opportunities.

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1. FAO, Somalia: Report of the High Level WCARRD Follow-up and Lagos Plan of Action Strategy Review Mission 1982, p.5.

79. In Africa, women make up more than 50 percent of the agricultural labour force and in southern Africa, where men migrate to the cities and to the Republic of South Africa to work in the mines, women make up 60-70 percent of the agricultural labour force. In Uganda, 60-80 percent of the labour force in food production is provided by women. Yet men remain the effective custodians of land. Because of competition from export crops, women's access to land is restricted and they have become more dependent on men. Generally, the production, processing and marketing of food crops is the domain of women, and hence the importance of women in food security.

80. Although this division of labour by sex exists, women and men engage in complementary and mutually reinforcing activities. However, in spite of the overwhelming importance of women in food production, past governmental and international efforts to improve agricultural productivity and restore self-sufficiency in Africa have totally ignored the needs of women. Recent interventions in research, extension, credit, marketing, irrigation etc., have focussed on men even when they are not food producers.

81. Six classical misconceptions concerning the role of women are identified by Jennie Dey as follows: 1/

"(i) The household is often assumed to be a homogenous unit in which the (male) household head controls all labour, assets and income and makes all major decisions on social and economic matters;

(ii) Household heads are stereotyped as male despite the fact that many widows and divorcees are household heads (30-40 percent in SADCC);

(iii) Women's domestic roles are typecast as their primary role even though rural women perceive themselves as performing multiple, interdependent but equally important domestic and economic roles;

(iv) There is increasing awareness of women's roles in food production, processing and preparation for household consumption...diverted attention from women's equally important income-earning activities...

(v) Women's contribution to household food crop and livestock production results in their being identified as unpaid family workers. The rigidity of this stereotyping on the basis of only one of women's multiple roles, precludes adequate recognition of their parallel roles as on-account farmers and business women, or as wage labourers;

(vi) ...women in some Muslim countries do not engage in economic activities... may mask an active trade in processed or cooked foods operated from their homes, with children delivering goods or selling them in the market place."

1/ Dey J., Women in Food Production and Food Security in Africa, FAO, 1984, p.10-12.)

82. In recent years, the crucial role of women in food production in addition to their traditionally recognized role in household activities seems to be accepted. This heightened awareness has prompted actions at national and international levels to bring women into mainstream development, and to provide support in their multiple roles as producers and providers. The food and agricultural crisis which engulfed most African countries in the 1970's and 1980's has no doubt encouraged the governments of Africa and donor agencies to focus on women in their assistance programmes aimed at increasing food production.

83. Like WCARRD, the Lagos Plan of Action, which provided the framework for the long-term development of Africa (1980-2000), recognized the vital role of women in the effort to achieve food self-sufficiency and called for more research on women's role in food production and to establish and strengthen women's units in Planning Ministries.

84. There is evidence, that in Eastern and Southern Africa that this heightened awareness is being reflected in government activities and in important documents, and considerable gains appear to have been recorded particularly in the spheres of political and social life.

85. In Ethiopia, for instance, the continuing Government support to women to become full partners in social, economic and political life has been noted. But, "despite gains made, much remains to be done, with fewer positive achievments to date in economic than in socio-political development". There are indications that emphasis has been more on home economics, health and literacy, than other specific activities critical for women's development.

86. "Women's activities and needs are not recognized as fully as they might be and as women are reported to want them. Peasant Associations, services and producer's cooperatives do not presently provide opportunities for as active a participation of women as their socio-economic contributions to rural life warrant. Women lack access to membership, land, credit and training for productive activities".1/

87. In Lesotho government aid programmes are reported to be giving support to women. The Government document "Blue Print for Action - Agricultural Development 1980" urged donors to pay special attention to utilizing women's potential for development. However, the mission observed that women's right to own land is limited; furthermore, of the 25,000 Credit Union members, few women are in decision-making positions.

88. In Somalia, considerable progress has been reported in legislations to accord women equal rights in all spheres of life, i.e. maternity leave, improvement of working hours for mothers who have to nurture thir infants, establishment of kindergarten and nurseries for the children of working mothers.

89. In spite of the considerable progress already achieved in terms of legislation, women's organizations, literacy etc., a lot remains to be done. In many countries, women's crucial role in food security is yet to be fully recognized, and government interventions (i.e. research, extension, credit, marketing, training) are yet to accord priority to foodcrops and to women as the main actors in this field.

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1. FAO, Ethiopia: Report of the High Level WCARRD Follow-up Mission, 1982, p.4.

2. Kingdom of Lesotho, WCARRD Mission, p.45.

90. FAO has focussed its activities to enhance women's participation in food production and rural development. The action programmes include:

(i) organizing workshops and seminars;

(ii) launching a programme called "Women in Food System" (WIFS) aimed at strengthening rural development policies and support services reaching rural women engaged mainly in food production;

(iii) "Programme for Disadvantaged Rural Women" (CADRW) aimed at assisting female plantation workers, women in settlement schemes, women refugees, women-headed households, women-

(iv) launching a global consultation on women in Food Security" has been organized.

...ficient agricultural knowledge, most countries ...ndicated that the natives had at ...so was lost in the ... colonial structure of ... and ... was regained most ... government machinery ... in all areas of ... the priority of ... technical manpower ...

... the interests of the ... services at all. To ... needs of African ...

... countries have achieved ... and they have also claimed the ...

... the pursuit of the ... for both men and ... and objectives of WCARRD.

... In many countries ... primary education is now ... universal ... the goal of many countries. Table ... enrolments achieved between 1965 and 1982 and ... are indicative ... have been continuing. As shown in the ... the male/female ... inequalities. In spite of the ... WCARRD missions report ... inequalities between urban and rural areas and between male and female. For instance, ... it is indicated that a very small ... of those ... primary school proceed to ...

secondary school, and few children from nomadic families attend school. In spite of compulsory primary education in Mozambique, enrollment of children between the ages of 6 and 14 did not exceed 40 percent and, because of a high drop-out rate, only 10 percent reach fourth grade 1/. Rural and urban registration shows 27.5 and 62.5 percent respectively, and less than 1 percent of rural children proceed to secondary school.

97. In Lesotho, 70 percent of the children in the primary school age group were enrolled in 1980 but, of one thousand pupils enrolled in standard 1, only 370 (37 percent) reached standard 7. 2/

98. The emphasis on adult education and literacy campaigns has paid off handsomely in many countries. For example, in Tanzania, consistent effort has produced a 90 percent literate population in 1980, with progressively increasing equality between the sexes. In Ethiopia, the literacy rate has risen to more than 60 percent over a span of less than 10 years compared to 10 percent during the previous regime.

99. There is also a considerable shift of emphasis in the subregion in the type of education from academic to practical and vocational training. The emerging pedagogic concept is education for self-reliance and development; the emphasis being on education for the masses. In spite of the emphasis on education for rural development, there is a strong feeling that the type of education is encouraging rural youngsters to abandon rural life. The prevailing attitude is that children go to school to escape from rural life and this is what parents desire for their children, justifiably so, in light of the existing gross inequality between urban and rural social facilities.

100. The special problem of providing education for children of nomadic families has been one of the important issues. Although this question arose in connection with Somalia's nomadic population, the issue is very relevant and pertinent to all countries where nomadic pastoralism exists (Botswana, Djibouti, Ethiopia, Kenya, Tanzania). It is emphasized that an appropriate education system should be tailored to fit the context and needs of nomads. Using radio as a means of communication with nomadic pastoralists has been suggested. There is a need for a detailed analysis of this issue, clear-cut and consistent policy, and national commitment to the education of nomads within a comprehensive strategy of education.

101. Regarding education, the World Bank 3/ maintains that in recent years enrollment has been decreasing and that the quality of education is deteriorating in Sub-Saharan Africa. The report further indicates that the annual public cost of higher education is almost $3,000 per student - eight times higher than the cost in Asia and almost double that in Latin America.

1/ FAO, Report of the WCARRD Follow-up Inter-Agency Mission to Mozambique, 1984, p.40.
2/ Kingdom of Lesotho, WCARRD Mission, p.51.
3/ World Bank, Financing Adjustment, p.30.

102. Health, Nutrition and Sanitation: In general, health conditions have improved dramatically in Sub-Saharan Africa since independence. Governments have given the development of health infrastructure high priority. Most of the countries subscribe to the Alma Ata Conference (1979) which gave high priority to preventive medecine and the active participation of the local community in its own health care.

103. Although improvement in health is satisfactory compared to other areas of development, Africa is still considered to be behind in health infrastructure, particularly with respect to rural areas. In fact, in certain cases it has been reported that facilities are deteriorating due to lack of maintenance, loss of manpower and inadequate finance. For instance, it has been observed that, by 1982/83, infant mortality in Uganda had climbed to an estimated level of 130 per thousand live births compared to 110 per thousand in 1969. Recognizing this problem, the Ugandan Government has given high priority to primary health in its Recovery Programme.

104. The Ethionian Government has adopted progressive policies for improved primary health care, with the aim of encouraging preventive medicine and rural areas, working through the structure of people's organizations with emphasis on self-reliance. However, in spite of the effort of the Government, some health indices show the existing poor health conditions. For instance, in 1980-85 infant mortality averaged 172 deaths per thousand live births (Table 7). The same is true of Angola, Malawi, Mozambique, Somalia, and Swaziland. In Mozambique, half the health budget goes to Public Health Care. Despite this emphasis, however, the mission observed the existence of high maternal and child mortality; poor coverage of maternal and child care; a high prevalence of malnutrition, anemia, infectious and parasitic diseases; poor average vaccination activities; high mortality and morbidity rates as a result of measles; and poor coverage of the health network and poor water supply.

105. A rural poverty study 1/ conducted in Ethiopia indicated the prevalence of communicable diseases closely associated with the poor water supply, a generally poor degree of sanitation, poor personal hygiene and lack of vaccinations. The report also indicated that in spite of the effort of the Government to the contrary, health facilities are still urban biased.

106. Referring to a study by UNICEF and WHO, the World Bank report sited above 2/ concluded that, in Sub-Saharan Africa, childhood immunization levels are the lowest in the World: polio 32 precent, measles 35 percent, tuberculosis 41 percent, and diptheria, pertussis and tetanus 33 percent; whereas, according to the report, an immunization level of about 80 percent is generally considered necessary to control the transmission of these diseases. According to the report, immunization levels have actually deteriorated in many countries in Africa (in the subregion in question, Zambia and Tantania are among those with deteriorating immunization levels).

1/ Teka, T. and T. Nichola, p.23.
2/ World Bank, p.28.

107. Nutrition problems are very acute in almost every country in the subregion. The already poor conditions were exacerbated by the food crisis of 1983-84 when most countries experienced persistent drought for 3-4 years (Angola, Botswana, Ethiopia, Mozambique). The per capita dietary energy supply actually deteriorated in 10 of the 15 countries for which data is available (Table 8). In 1984, the daily dietary energy supply was less than 95 percent of the average requirements for 6 out of the 15 countries and 4 of these countries were so close to or below the critical level of 1,800 kcal per day.

108. Sanitation and Water Supply: The importance of sanitation and a safe water supply are clearly recognized. Regrettably, however, in every country the situation is considered to be extremely poor. It has been revealed that both water supply and sanitation standards are very low in rural areas. In Ethiopia, it was estimated that only 3-4 percent of the rural population is getting clean and safe water while, in Tanzania, the population getting safe water is estimated at 41 percent of the total rural population in 1979-80.

109. Non-farm activities: In some countries, non-farm activities are making substantial contributions to rural income and employment. In Kenya, about 43 percent of smallholder income is currently derived from non-farm activities 1/. In Tanzania, around 20 percent of rural household income is said to be generated by non-farm activities. A diversified rural economy, not only in agriculture proper but also in agriculture-related industries such as processing, preserving, packaging, pressing oil etc., and in trade and services, is a condition sine qua non for the creation of a dynamic and self-reliant rural economy. Production of agricultural implements and consumer goods required by the farmers, expansion of services such as small rural shops, trading services whereby farmers can obtain agricultural inputs and purchase consumer goods etc. are essential elements of rural development.

110. To do this, rural people have to be trained and retrained in various skills such as carpentry, masonry, mechanics, shoe repair, tailoring, weaving etc. The need for an organized credit is obvious. A critical problem in the development of rural industries is marketing. Proper marketing and input supply arrangements are needed.

111. Non-farm activities can be promoted through incentive schemes such as easy loans, tax holidays, improved access to raw material and other inputs, and improved marketing schemes and training programmes. However, not many countries have given this sufficient attention. In Tanzania, the development of agro-based industrial linkage to benefit the rural population is being actively promoted.

112. Other types of non-farm activities are intensive rural works programmes such as soil and water conservation, afforestation and reforestation, feeder road construction, construction of dams etc. In some countries, effective use is being made of WFP assistance in this respect.

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1. Government of Kenya, National Development Plan, 1979-83.

113. The creation of non-farm employment opportunities has special importance and significance in the BLS countries where, in future, migrant workers may be forced to stay at home. In Lesotho, at present, 128,000 migrants are estimated to be working in the Republic of South Africa. Due to increasing restrictions by South Africa, this figure is expected to be reduced by 15,000 by the end of the Third National Development Plan Period (1980-1985) and by approximately 60,000 by the year 2000. New jobs have to be found in agriculture, as well as in the domestic non-farm activities for these returning migrants and new entrants into the labour force. The same is probably true of Botswana and Swaziland. All Mozambican nationals working in South African Mines etc. have now been ordered to return home and these must be resettled in Mozambique. In these particular circumstances, th training and rehabilitation of returning migrants assumes special significance.

AGENCY ACTIVITIES IN SUPPORT OF THE IMPLEMENTATION OF WCARRD

114. In adopting the Declaration of Principles and Action Programmes, the WCARRD Conference requested the appropriate United Nations agencies, with FAO as lead agency, to assist Member States in, inter alia: (i) monitoring and evaluating agrarian reform and rural development; (ii) analyzing and disseminating information; (iii) providing technical assistance in the implementation of the Programme; and, (iv) mobilizing resources.

115. In response to this request, the UN agencies concerned - with FAO as lead agency - have been taking actions to harmonize their programmes with WCARRD and to assist Member States in the formulation of their rural development strategies. Poverty-related programmes have received particular attention since WCARRD, and efforts to achieve rural development have been intensified. The report of the ACC Task Force on Rural Development, 1985, indicates that UN agencies such as ILO, UNIDO, UNEP, UNFPA, WFP, IFAD, WHO, UNESCO, UNICEF, the World Bank, UNDP, and the Regional Commissions (ECA in this case) have all been sharpening the focus of their programmes for the alleviation of rural poverty, and continue to give more emphasis to disadvantaged groups such as small farmers, women, farm labourers, pastoralists, artisanal fishermen, etc.

116. ILO, for instance, is continuing its anti-poverty programme with major expansion in the area of women and people's participation; WHO has reoriented its programme to support Member Countries convert the joint WHO/UNICEF concept of Public Health Care into reality. UNESCO's "Education for all" and WHO's "Health for all" are further demonstrations of this enhanced emphasis on the rural poor. UNESCO's rural press and radio programme also have the rural poor as their focus. UNIDO has focussed its programmes on industrial development activities to benefit the rural poor.

117. UNFPA has placed greater emphasis than before on the coordiniation of population and rural policies and on their integration with national development plans; UNEP's programme on environmental protection, particularly in marginal areas where poverty is acute and endemic, is another example of the concentration on anti-poverty programmes in consonance with WCARRD.

118. IFAD was actually established with specific mandate of supporting the poor, and its programmes have been reflecting this mandate. In 1985, according to the ACC Task Force report, 52 percent of IFAD's total loans went towards assisting Sub-Saharan African countries, and its Special Programme for Sub-Saharan Africa, aimed at restoring agricultural production, is receiving increasing support.

119. Invariably, all international agencies now give particular emphasis to people's participation considered to be one of the most essential elements in ensuring the viability and sustainability of rural development projects. For instance, the World Bank indicated that 65 percent of its projects approved in the 1985 fiscal year were developed using different types of farmers' participation. These provided basic information on the socio-economic, cultural and demographic characteristics of the beneficiaries, the organization of productive activities, and the projects' cultural compatibility with the behaviour and needs of the beneficiaries.

120. Further examples of the support given and commitment to people's participation are: WFP's guidelines for differentiating the target groups by socio-economic category and by sex, with a strong accent on consultation at the grass-root level; ILO's various activities involving worker education, non-farm employment, income-generation , and the improvement of the managerial capacity of small enterprises; FAO's credit and savings participatory projects, and training of government cadres for participatory planning at village level; and WHO's community involvement in health development.

121. IFAD is developing "operational modalities" to put the concept of people's participation into practice. UNDP has launched a "grassroots initiative fund" to finance projects identified by local communities. A pilot multi-agency integrated participatory village development project has been initiated in Zimbabwe.

122. Traditional women's savings clubs have been used by FAO in Kenya and Zimbabwe to identify and provide support services.

123. Several agency projects now have women as the major beneficiaries. IFAD's report indicates that 52 percent of its programmes identified women as explicit beneficiaries in 1984, compared to only 10 percent in 1978.

124. Integrated WFP projects, combining nutrition, income and employment generation, skills training, access to resources and services such as potable water, fuel and health facilities have women as the major beneficiaries. So do FAO's integrated agricultural development projects in several countries, as well as the various women's programmes such as self-help participatory projects under the programme for Community Actions for Disadvantaged Rural Women, the inter-divisional programme testing energy saving technologies for rural households, and the projects on improving women's access to credit, banking and marketing.

125. Projects in the fields of functional literacy, population nutrition and family health, with the focus on women, are being implemented by UNESCO, UNFPA, WFP and WHO.

126. The Economic Commission for Africa has been one of the leading institutions in Africa in advocating policy reforms to revamp agricultural productivity in accordance with WCARRD principles and strategies. Policies that have long been undermining agricultural productivity have been the subject of various meetings and seminars sponsored by the ECA individually, or in collaboration with other agencies such as FAO. ECA's biggest contribution has been in the area of institution building to promote inter-country cooperation. A notable example of this effort is the Preferential Trade Area (PTA) for Eastern and Southern Africa. Through its subregional offices, ECA has been instrumental in promoting various types of cooperative activities designed to enhance individual and collective self-reliance.

127. ECA was one of the main architects of the Lagos Plan of Action (1980) which set the macro-framework for the development of African economies, including agriculture, and which has given high emphasis to rural development. ECA also played a major role in the development of the African Priority Programme for Economic Recovery (APPER), 1986-1990 and in preparing Africa's submission which culminated in the UN Programme of Action for African Economic Recovery and Development.

128. The Commission, in collaboration with other UN agencies and inter-governmental organizations, has been sponsoring various conferences and workshops to sensitize policy makers to issues related to rural development. In 1985, ECA sponsored among other things, the following:

(i) Expert Consultations on the Role of Rural Cooperatives in the Production Sector in Africa (with FAO, ILO, UNIDO and ICA);

(ii) Expert Consultation on Prevention of Encroachment on Arable Land in Africa (with UNEP, FAO, and UNESCO);

(iii) Workshop for Rural Women on the use of Technologies Tested and Found Appropriate for Home Use.

(iv) Assisted the member States to establish a subregional maize research network.

(v) Assisted in creating the Association of Food Marketing Agencies in Africa (AFMA-Africa).

129. Various reports and technical publications on topics related to WCARRD have been produced. ECA has also participated in the various inter-agency WCARRD review missions.

130. FAO, being the lead agency for the implementation of WCARRD, its' work programme has been greatly influenced by the Declaration of Principles and Action Programme of WCARRD. This is reflected in the various types of assistance FAO has provided in the following areas, just to mention a few:

(i) review of rural development policies and strategies;

(ii) education and training;

(iii) nutrition policy;

(iv) monitoring and evaluation;

(v) people's participation; and

(iv) women in development.

131. In conformity with WCARRD objectives FAO has been organizing a number of inter-agency high-level missions to various countries in response to their requests. Ethiopia, Lesotho, Mozambique, Somalia, Tanzania and Uganda have so far benefitted from this activity. The missions have no doubt been helpful in streamlining the policies and programmes of the respective countries with the principles and strategies of WCARRD. These have also resulted in several project proposals to be implemented with assistance from the appropriate agencies. As a follow-up to the missions, several policy and strategy discussions and workshops have been initiated with national Governments.

132. FAO has also been assisting Member Countries reorient their agricultural extension services in order to give greater emphasis to small farmers, especially women farmers, and to the adoption of the participatory approach in extension work. In addition, considerable attention has been given to improving extension and research linkages. FAO has also been assisting national institutions establish a functional linkage between extension and research (Ethiopia, Lesotho). Workshops have been organized to facilitate exchange of information and experiences on: (i) improving the organization and administration of agricultural services to small farmers; and, (ii) institutional development and training programmes and people's participation.

133. FAO has been giving emphasis to monitoring and evaluation in all its programmes, and has been providing assistance to Member Countries to strengthen and/or establish monitoring and evaluation mechanisms in appropriate ministries and in development projects.

134. FAO has pilot people's participation programme (PPP) projects in twelve countries, eight of which are in Africa. A manual for the M & E of people's participation projects is being tested.

135. The new orientation of FAO's programme in the area of women in rural development, and the importance attached to it, was reflected when the name of the service was changed from the Home Economics and Social Programmes Service to the Women in Agricultural and Rural Development Service. FAO has initiated several programmes under its Women in Development programme discussed earlier.

136. Several workshops and expert consultations have been held on women in food production and food security in Africa to identify suitable approaches and techniques for reorienting extension and training services to reach women farmers more effectively, to train economist, agricultural development officers in the formulation and design of projects, assisting women farmers, and to develop additional FAO-assisted Women in Food Systems Country Projects in Africa.

Constraints Identified by WCARRD Missions

137. Several fundamental constraints which hinder progress in the implementation of WCARRD are summarized below:

(i) lack of clearly defined and articulated rural development policies and stragegies;

(ii) lack of coordination among the various ministries and agencies engaged in the planning and implementation of rural development projects;

(iii) lack of mechanisms for continuous monitoring and evaluation;

(iv) lack of coordination of the activities of aid agencies;

(v) inefficiency in the management of parastatal organizations (the need to scrutinize and rationalize operations);

(vi) insufficient recognition or understanding of the role of women as food producers;

(vii) critical shortage of manpower, in particular for the decentralization of decision making and promotion of popular participation;

(viii) lack of statistical information for planning, and for determining the incidence and nature of rural poverty, and on women as food producers.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

138. The central concern of the World Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development was the eradication of rural poverty and malnutrition. In the pursuit of these objectives, the vital role of people's participation has been underscored.

139. By adopting the Declaration of Principles and Action Programmes the Member States pledged themselves to undertake policy and institutional reforms in areas that influence rural development and equity: Since the conference, a number of Governments have individually and/or collectively pronounced their determination and, in certain cases, have actually taken steps to enhance rural development and to achieve equitable income distribution. By the Lagos Plan of Action, the African Governments committed themselves to increasing resource allocation to agriculture and by APPER they reaffirmed this commitment by stipulating that agriculture should receive 20-25 percent of public investment. As far as the WCARRD

recommendations are concerned, some countries have made good their pledges by adopting major policy and institutional reforms in line with the recommendations of WCARRD.

140. United Nations agencies, and other relevant international organizations, with FAO as lead agency, have been sensitizing policy makers on issues of major concern to WCARRD through Workshops, advisory missions and relevant studies. The agencies have also reoriented their activities and strategies to conform with the objectives and priorities of WCARRD. Inter-agency review missions have been launched on request, to countries to discuss and to assist them to formulate rural development strategies and to identify areas for assistance.

141. As indicated above significant progress has been made in sensitizing policy makers. Governments have affirmed and reaffirmed their commitment to give agriculture the highest priority and to eradicate rural poverty and malnutrition. Regrettably, however, such official pronouncements have rarely been translated into concrete actions. In fact, in many cases, the position of the rural population has not improved considerably. There is no evidence to suggest that rural poverty has been alleviated, let alone eradicated. In fact, in many countries the situation of the rural poor has worsened.

142. In the 1980's, food and agricultural production deteriorated, aggravated by recurrent droughts. Although the overall progress in infrastructural development and social services have been relatively good, the rural sector has yet to benefit from these services. Due to the severe economic recession and acute shortage of foreign exchange, some social and economic services are reported to be lagging in a number of countries. Therefore, the achievement of WCARRD goals still remain basically elusive for most countries.

143. It is evident that African countries are facing formidable obstacles in their attempts to accelerate rural development and eradicate poverty. Many entrenched obstacles, some of them attributable to colonial legacy, could not be dismantled in a short period of time. To achieve sound institutional and policy reforms, and for new and efficient institutions to develop the necessary competency, will no doubt take time. Ad hoc reforms would only serve to divert attention from the long-term development needs. What is required is systematic and sustained reform in the long-term interests of African agriculture and rural development.

144. There is no doubt that governments are making efforts in difficult circumstances and indeed the foundation for the realization of WCARRD objectives have been laid. However, to accelerate rural development and eliminate rural poverty, African Governments need to rededicate themselves once more to the ideals and principles enshrined in WCARRD. These ideals, together with those of LPA and UNPAAERD remain the solid basis for the achievement of accelerated rural development and greater self-reliance in rural development in the subregion.

145. More specifically, to facilitate the implementation of WCARRD the governments of the subregion may wish to consider actions in the following areas:

(i) reassessment of past rural development activities and formulation of clearly defined and targeted rural development strategies and implementation of mechanisms for continuous monitoring and evaluation of rural development progress;

(ii) co-ordination of the activities of the various government organizations and ministries involved in rural development;

(iii) evaluation of the role of parastatal organizations with the view of rationalizing their activities for improvement of their operational efficiencies;

(iv) the co-ordination of activities of AID agencies in order to maximize the benefits from their efforts;

(v) according sufficient recognition to the role of rural women in food production and food security in addition to their traditional role in the home, with a view to creating opportunities for them to participate fully in rural development as well as in the economic, social and political life of the society;

(vi) development of general indicators on implementation of WCARRD and improvement of statistics on the incidence and causes of rural poverty, the role of women in food production; and in the problems and needs of small farmers to facilitate planning from below.

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TABLE 1: Per Capita Annual Rate of Growth of Agriculture

Food and Cereal Production
- Pre WCARRD Situation

Region	Agricultural Production		Food Production		Cereal Production	
	1961/65-70	1970-76	1961/65-70	1970-76	1961/65-70	1970-76
Developing market economies	0.5	0.0	0.7	0.2	1.1	0.3
Africa	0.2	-1.5	0.1	-1.4	0.4	-0.8
Far East	0.8	0.1	0.9	0.2	1.6	0.0
Latin America	0.2	0.1	0.8	0.5	0.7	1.0
Near East	0.4	1.1	0.3	1.4	-0.6	2.1
Asian Centrally Planned Economies	1.0	0.7	0.9	0.6	1.1	0.7
All Developing Countries	0.7	0.2	0.7	0.3	1.1	0.4
MSA Countries	0.6	-0.5	0.7	-0.4	1.4	-0.4
Non-MSA Countries	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.7	0.7	1.3

Source: Review and analysis of agrarian reform and rural development in the developing countries since the mid-1960's, WCARRD/INF 3, FAO, Rome.

TABLE 2: Structure of Production 1965 and 1984, Eastern and Southern Africa

	GDP (million US$)		DISTRIBUTION OF GDP (PERCENT)						
			AGRICULTURE		INDUSTRY		MANUFACTURING	SERVICES	
COUNTRY	1965	1984	1965	1984	1965	1984	1965	1984	196
Botswana	50	990	34	6	19	45	12	7	4
Ethiopia	1,180	4,270	58	48	14	16	7	11	2
Kenya	920	5,140	35	31	18	21	11	12	4
Lesotho	50	360	65	-	5	-	1	-	3
Madagascar	730	2,380	31	42	16	16	-	-	5
Malawi	220	1,090	50	37	13	18	-	-	3
Mauritius	190	860	16	14	23	25	14	17	6
Somalia	220	1,364	71	-	6	-	3	-	2
Tanzania	790	4,410	46	-	14	-	8	-	4
Uganda	1,180	4,710	52	-	13	-	8	-	3
Zambia	1,060	2,640	14	15	40	26	3	7	3
Zimbabwe	960	4,580	18	14	35	40	20	27	4

Source: World Development Report 1986, World Bank

Table 3: Structure of Merchandise Exports

(Percentage Share)

Country	Fuel, minerals and metals		Other primary commodities		Textile and clothing	
	1965	1982	1965	1982	1965	1982
Angola	6	..	76	..	..	..
Ethiopia	(.)	8	99	91	(.)	(.)
Kenya	13	29	77	57	(.)	(.)
Lesotho						
Madagascar	4	12	90	81	1	4
Malawi	(.)	(.)	99	88	(.)	6
Mozambique	14	..	84	..	1	..
Somalia	(.)	(.)	86	99		
Tanzania	1	5	86	82	(.)	3
Uganda	13	..	86	..		
Zambia	97	..	3	..	..	..
Zimbabwe	24	..	47	..	6	..

.. Not available

(.) Less than half the unit shown

Table 4: Estimated Fertilizer Use: Average 1979-81 (As fertilizer nutrients)

Country	Total used (1,000 MT)			Harvested Area (1,000 ha)			Quantity used (kg/ha)		
	Total	Export and non-food crops	Food crops	Total	Export and non-food crops	Food crops	Total	Export and non-food crops	Fo cr
Angola	14	5	9	1,572	306	1,266	9	16	
Botswana	1	-	-	193	1	192	5	-	
Dijbouti	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Ethiopia	42	23	19	7,625	812	6,813	6	28	
Kenya	61	12	49	2,844	350	2,494	21	34	
Lesotho	5	-	-	-	-	-	23	-	
Madagascar	8	6	2	2,306	277	2,029	3	22	
Malawi	31	9	22	-	-	-	15	69	
Mauritius	26	25	-	97	80	17	268	313	
Mozambique	31	26	5	2,570	207	2,363	12	126	
Somalia	1	-	1	695	4	690	1	-	
Swaziland	14	-	-	150	22	128	93	-	
Tanzania	32	21	11	5,400	669	4,731	6	31	
Uganda	1	1	-	3,358	331	3,027	-	3	
Zambia	80	8	72	1,235	34	1,201	65	235	
Zimbabwe	153	80	73	2,300	300	2,000	67	267	

Source: FAO, Atlas of African Agriculture - African Agriculture, the next 25 years, Rome 1986

Table 5: Agricultural Research Efforts

Sub-Saharan Africa, Asia and Latin America, 1980

	Expenditure on Agricultural Research		Agricultural Scientist Staff Years
.on	As percentage of agricultural GDP	Per scientist staff year (thousands of US $)	Per $10 million agricultural GDP
-Saharan Africa:			
:st Africa	1.19	83	1.42
ıst Africa	0.81	46	1.76
)uthern Africa 1/	1.23	50	2.47
ı:			
)uth Asia	0.43	34	1.29
)utheast Asia	0.52	25	2.07
ı America			
rmperate South America	0.70	53	1.32
opical South America	0.98	56	1.77
ribbean and Central America	0.63	52	1.20

1/ Includes South Africa

ce: World Bank, Financing Adjustment with Growth in Sub-Saharan Africa, 1986-90, from R.A. Evenson; "The IARCs: Evidence of Impact on National Research and Extension on Productivity", for the Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research (draft), 1985.

Table 6: Education Related Indicators

Country	Numbers enrolled in primary schools as percentage of age group					
	Total		Male		Female	
	1965	1982	1965	1982	1965	1982
Angola	39	..	53	..	26	..
Botswana	65	102	59	94	71	110
Ethiopia	11	46 a/	16	60 a/	6	33 a/
Kenya	54	104	69	114	40	94
Lesotho	94	112	74	95	114	129
Madagascar	65	100 a/	70	..	59	..
Mauritius	101	106	105	107	97	105
Malawi	44	62 a/	55	73 a/	32	51 a/
Mozambique	37	104	48	119	26	72
Somalia	10	30 a/	16	38 a/	4	21 a/
Swaziland	74	111	76	111	71	111
Tanzania	32	98	40	101	25	95
Uganda	67	60	83	69	50	51
Zambia	53	96 a/	59	102 a/	46	90 a/
Zimbabwe	110	130 a/	128	134 a/	92	125 a/
Sub-Sahara	42 w	71 w	55 w	82 w	28 w	65 w
All low income	62 w	85 w	77 w	103 w	47 w	77 w
All lower mid.	74 w	103 w	82 w	109 w	65 w	98 w
All upper mid.	96 w	102 w	100 w	108 w	92 w	100 w
Ind. market economies	110 w	102 w	107 w	102 w	110 w	102 w

a/ Figures are for years other than those specified.

Source: World Bank, Financing Adjustment with Growth in Sub-Saharan Africa, 1986-90.

Table 7: Life Expectancy and related indicators

Country	Life expectancy at birth (years) Male		Female		Infant mortality rate (aged under 1)		Child death rate (aged 1-4)	
	1965	1984	1965	1984	1965	1984	1965	1984
Angola	34	42	37	44	193	144	52	30
Botswana	46	55	49	61	108	72	21	11
Ethiopia	42	43	43	46	166	172	37	39
Kenya	43	52	46	56	113	92	25	16
Lesotho	47	52	50	56	143	107	20	14
Madagascar	41	51	44	54	..	110	..	22
Malawi	38	44	40	46	201	158	55	36
Mauritius	59	62	63	69	64	26	9	1
Mozambique	36	45	39	48	172	125	31	22
Somalia	36	44	40	47	166	153	37	33
Swaziland								
Tanzania	41	50	44	53	138	111	29	22
Uganda	43	49	47	53	122	110	26	21
Zambia	42	50	46	53	123	85	29	15
Zimbabwe	46	55	49	59	104	77	15	7

.. Not available

Source: World Bank, World Bank Development Report, 1986, IBRD, Washington D.C.

Table 8: Per Capita Dietary Energy Supply (DES) 1979-81
(Kcals/day)

Country	1979-81	1984	% Change 1979/81-84	Average of Requirement 1984
Angola	2,154	1,957	- 9.1	93
Botswana	2,169	1,939	-10.6	92
Ethiopia	2,172	1,695	-22.0	81
Kenya	2,000	1,810	- 9.5	86
Lesotho	2,377	2,338	- 1.6	111
Madagascar	2,519	2,413	- 4.2	115
Malawi	2,269	2,438	7.4	116
Mauritius	2,721	2,801	2.9	133
Mozambique	1,806	1,637	- 9.4	78
Somalia	2,082	2,068	- 0.7	98
Swaziland	2,496	2,579	3.2	123
Tanzania	2,436	2,247	- 7.8	107
Uganda	2,146	2,394	11.6	114
Zambia	2,180	1,968	-10.1	94
Zimbabwe	2,134	1,843	-14.6	88

Source: FAO, Atlas of African Agriculture,
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